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ABSTRACT

This document summarizes programs provided in the Developing Institutions Program (Title III of the 1965 Higher Education Act.) The data sources were a questionnaire yielding Title III program data and institutional characteristics from 1965-66 to 1970-71 for 325 institutions receiving Title III funds, as well as case studies for 41 institutions and four agencies detailing their use of Title III funds conducted during 1972. In this review a model of institutional development is presented and applied to the case studies of Title III institutions. Then a general summary of Title III programs from questionnaire data is given followed by a summary for each of the three grant categories, after which some concluding comments are made. (Author)

How Much Change for a Dollar? A Look at Title III

Harold L. Hodgkinson

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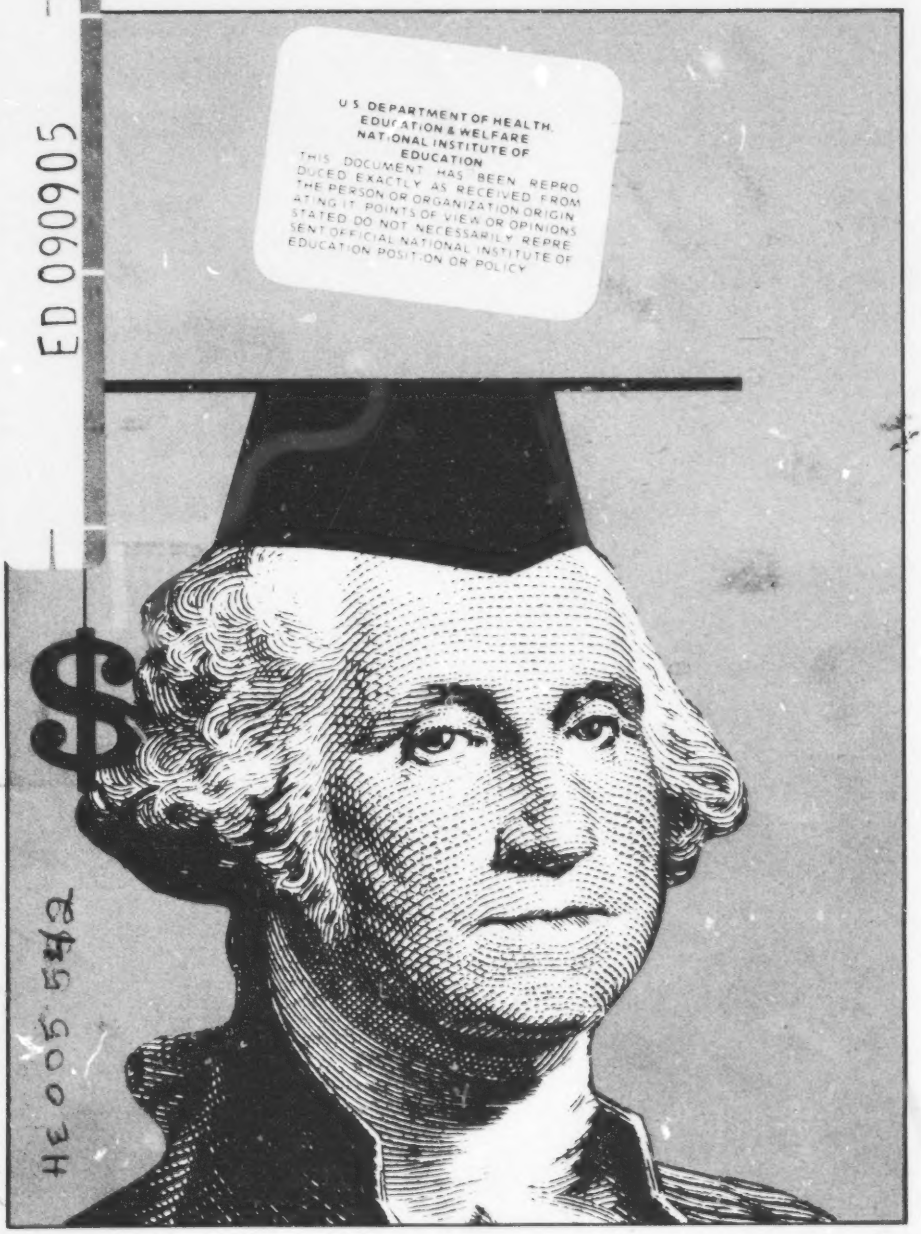

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How Much Change for a Dollar? A Look at Title III

Harold L. Hodgkinson

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Preface

This is an unusual ERIC/Higher Education Research Report in that it does not summarize research findings from a number of studies and sources. Rather, it summarizes *programs* provided in the Developing Institutions Program (Title III of the 1965 Higher Education Act). During the period of this study, Title III provided over a quarter of a billion dollars to over 600 institutions of higher education through 3,298 grants to these institutions.

Title III is in many ways the most radical federal program in the area of higher education. Its intent is to bring a group of academically and fiscally poor institutions, many threatened with extinction, into what has come to be called "the mainstream of American higher education." The authorizing legislation for the program is extremely vague, although this vagueness has turned out to be a virtue in terms of program effectiveness in that the administrators of Title III at USOE have had a fairly free hand about how to spend their money. They have done their work well, maintained a fairly low profile, and have spent a remarkably high percentage of their funds on programs, with a minimum on administration and monitoring.

The award of Title III money falls into one of three categories: *direct grants* to institutions; grants to *coordinators of consortia* of institutions; and grants to *participating members* of consortia. Grants are given to institutions in the areas of curriculum improvement, faculty improvement, administrative improvement, and improvement of student services.

Our concern in the evaluation study performed for USOE had to do with the effectiveness of Title III money – did it make a difference? A second question, and one of interest to readers of this report, had to do with the delineation of the criteria, which would mean that the institution was ready to be on its own, autonomous, and ready to move past concerns with self-maintenance to more stimulating and productive ventures. The study revealed some clues as to how this path can be traced.

The data sources were a questionnaire yielding Title III program data and institutional characteristics from 1965-66 to 1970-71 for 325 institutions receiving Title III funds and case studies of 41 institutions and four agencies detailing their use of Title III funds conducted during 1972.

In this review a model of institutional development is presented and applied to the case studies of Title III institutions. Then a general summary of Title III programs from questionnaire data is given followed by a summary for each of the three grant categories, after which some concluding comments are made.

The study could not have been undertaken without excellent interviewers

who gave much of their time: the work of Walter Schenkel, Beth Abiko, and Steve Brint, the expertise of Rodney Reed and L. Richard Meeth, and the Center director during the study, Leland Medsker, was of great assistance. Gratitude should also be expressed for the support of the USOE, both the Division of College Support and OPBE. Any error of fact or interpretation is the full responsibility of the author.

Harold L. Hodgkinson

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A Model of Institutional Development

There are two dimensions of particular interest in devising a model of institutional development: (1) the stages of development, and (2) institutional vitality. W.W. Rostow's theory of economic development of nation-states was chosen in the attempt to present a model that would represent the point at which an institution was "developed" enough to benefit from special Title III funds for preprofessional programs. For the use of institutional vitality, several social-psychological concepts from Maslow concerning aggregate bodies (such as colleges) appeared the most adequate approach to defining individual indicators. There is also a conceptual debt owed to JB Lon Hefferlin's study on *The Dynamics of Academic Reform* (1969) as well as to Maslow's theory of emergent personal needs.

The Stages of Institutional Growth

In "The Stages of Economic Growth" (1960) Rostow developed a model applicable to the growth of large social systems and used both economic and social indicators. He perceived five distinct and progressive stages of economic growth: (1) *the traditional society*, predominantly based on agriculture, in which family and clan connections play a large role in social organization; (2) *the preconditions for take-off*, the period in which the rational basis for later economic expansion is laid and in which the nation-state first emerges; (3) *the take-off*, where technological innovations and changes in the social structure lay the groundwork for industrialization; (4) *the drive to maturity*, during which the process of industrialization is completed and in which "an economy demonstrates the capacity to move beyond the original industries which powered its take-off"; and (5) *the age of high mass-consumption*, a term analogous to what others have labelled "post-industrial society."

Rostow's model of economic development has become both controversial and widely quoted largely because of his addition of stages 2 and 3, the dynamics of which constituted an addition to common economic and social theory. This aspect of the model is of most interest here and is the focus for our model of the stages of developing institutions.

While colleges are by no means self-contained societies, they are fairly complex aggregates of individuals with widely differing characteristics. If theories of complex organizations have so far failed to explain the functioning of colleges and universities, it may be due to the complexity of these institutions. Colleges and universities that have reached a certain size are quite possibly examined most profitably in terms of small societies than in terms of large complex organizations. In "developing institutions" the

analogics to the first four stages of Rostow's model are considered to be as follows:

1. *Traditional society* – Institutions which may or may not have received some small amount of Title III funds for general institutional support; in other words, institutions on which this type of Title III funding has not had a noticeable impact.

2. *Preconditions for take-off* – After a sustained period of Title III funding for general institutional support, the college is at least *potentially* ready for special Title III support, since its major areas of deficiency have been improved.

3. *Take-off* – The institution is not only potentially but *actually* ready to receive and benefit from special Title III funds. The school exhibits certain characteristics (e.g., initiative in starting a preprofessional program on its own), which make it a decided candidate for special Title III funding.

4. *Drive to maturity* – The institution has been given a special Title III grant and is well on its way to having established viable preprofessional programs.

Stage 4 is really beyond the scope of this paper, since we are solely concerned with those stages preceding the actual granting of special Title III funds. This stage is mentioned only to show what the analogy between a society and a "developing institution" might be while it completes industrialization, i.e., implements a Title III-financed preprofessional program.

An institution that has reached the precondition for take-off stage, i.e., which has received a full cycle of Title III funding for general institutional support, is potentially ready to receive Title III funds for special program purposes. However, an institution that receives a full cycle of general institutional support funds under Title III fulfills only the necessary condition for being given special grants. In this regard, an equivalent sum of money for similar programs may have brought one institution to the point where its chances for setting up a special program are very high, while another college may be virtually unchanged after having received general support funds.

There is a fine line between preconditions for take-off and take-off itself (the two have very often been lumped together) in "developing institutions"; there is a fine line between colleges that have the *potential* for successful use of special Title III funds and colleges that are *actually* low-risk choices because they have demonstrated in some way that they are good choices. The ensuing discussion will center on how to distinguish between institutions that fulfill only the necessary conditions and those that fulfill both the necessary and sufficient conditions for implementing successful preprofessional programs. While the discussion has so far centered around an attempt to present and define conceptually and empirically valid indicators of institutional *vitality*, no comment was made on how to help a policymaker who has

to select institutions for special Title III grants. The task of defining "viability" is up to the person who selects from among the "vitality" indicators and decides which ones and how many to use. In discussing the various signs of institutional vitality, it is assumed the modified Rostow model will be used by the policymaker as follows:

1. The institution at the *traditional society* stage (which may or may not have received a very modest amount of Title III funding for general institutional support) obviously has not benefitted from Title III support long enough to demonstrate any impact. Thus, this type of institution, if judged worthy of support, is a likely candidate for a full cycle of general institutional support under Title III.

2. The institution at the *pre-conditions for take-off* stage has received a full cycle of general institutional support funding and should at least be potentially ready for special Title III funds. Previous Title III funding may or may not have prepared the institution to reach the actual take-off stage. The decision is likely to be to (a) terminate funds for this particular institution, or (b) consider it a high risk case and provide it with special Title III funds to start a preprofessional program.

3. The institution at the *take-off* stage is clearly the ideal recipient for special Title III grants, since it has already initiated some special programs of its own.

In the case of Institution 1 the funding decision will be clear; by definition the institution is not eligible for special Title III funds. Institution 3 is probably quite easy to decide about also; if any of the typical signs of vitality are used, the institution is likely to rank high on each indicator. It is Institution 2 about which the question of viability would be most difficult to solve; as a high-risk recipient of special Title III funds, there is a relatively high probability that the new program will fail or atrophy.

We believe at this point that we cannot define how to interpret any measure of vitality applied to Institution 2. The policymaker would have to decide what weight to assign to each indicator and which ones to select among the large number discussed earlier. There is no way to predict how an institution of type 2 will do; it may score high on some measures and low on others, or it may obtain an average score on all measures chosen.

The staging model should prove useful to policymakers. However, since we cannot develop measures in the abstract, what follows is an attempt to translate this model into the realities of the case study data presented here.

The Model Tried Out on Title III Case Studies

Though all developing institutions need money, not all of them use Title III funds equally well. Despite substantial grants in some schools there seemed to be no significant and visible impact resulting from Title III money. This was obviously due in part to poor administration, but the failures also seem to reflect more complex factors.

After several staff members read every case study, the institutions in the sample were placed into three general categories: *high-range institutions*, those which readers agreed are well on their way to becoming self-sustaining and effective institutions; *medium-range institutions*, those which were developing more gradually and somewhat unevenly and whose future was somewhat less certain; and *low-range institutions*, those which had "a long way to swim before they reach the mainstream," and were presently hampered by very basic problems in their daily operations.

On the basis of the information in the case studies, each school was placed into one of these general categories. Then every item in each case study that might provide a clue to the success or failure of an institution's efforts was written down. Those factors that seemed to recur most frequently in the higher-range institutions were labelled as "viability variables." Each institution was checked against these viability variables through the independent determination of whether the institution ranked as "excellent," "good," "fair," or "poor" in each one. This was not always an easy task, but in nearly every instance the case studies gave clear indications of where the institution stood with respect to each variable. An "excellent" ranking was given infrequently and only in clearly exceptional cases. The "poor" ranking was used far more liberally. For these case studies it was more difficult for readers to distinguish the excellent from the good than to distinguish the poor from the fair.

Analysis of the rankings was consistent with our original three-category breakdown – the low-range schools scored predominantly in the "poor" and "fair" ranges; the medium-range schools had considerably fewer "poor" scores and had a number of "good" scores, and the high-range schools had many fewer "fair" scores, only a very few "poor" scores, and several "excellent" scores (see Table 1). Tabulation of these scores consistently reflected general stages of development. For example, if an institution had more "poor" scores than any other and provided it had less than a couple of "good" scores, the school could be accurately identified as a low-range institution. The distribution of scores was quite consistent for each school.

Once an institution is identified by its stage of development, it is easier to

Tabl. 1. Stages of Development

Low Range Institutions (n = 10)	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor
Leadership dynamism		10% (1)	30% (3)	60% (6)
Financial stability			30% (3)	70% (7)
Range of programs		10% (1)	40% (4)	50% (5)
Cost effectiveness			50% (5)	50% (5)
Sense of role		10% (1)	60% (6)	30% (3)
Students' involvement			20% (2)	80% (8)
Fac.-admin. relations		10% (1)	30% (3)	60% (6)
Community relations		10% (1)	60% (6)	30% (3)
Title III success		20% (2)	40% (4)	40% (4)

Medium Range Institutions (n = 19)	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor
Leadership dynamism		42% (8)	53% (10)	5% (1)
Financial stability		26% (5)	42% (8)	32% (6)
Range of programs		21% (4)	42% (8)	37% (7)
Cost effectiveness		26% (5)	74% (14)	
Sense of role		32% (6)	63% (12)	5% (1)
Students' involvement		37% (7)	42% (8)	21% (4)
Fac.-admin. relations		37% (7)	47% (9)	16% (3)
Community relations		26% (5)	53% (10)	21% (4)
Title III success		37% (7)	42% (8)	21% (4)

High Range Institutions (n = 12)	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor
Leadership dynamism	8% (1)	92% (11)		
Financial stability	17% (2)	50% (6)	33% (4)	
Range of programs	8% (1)	75% (9)	17% (2)	
Cost effectiveness		75% (9)	25% (3)	
Sense of role	8% (1)	84% (10)	8% (1)	
Students' involvement		66% (8)	17% (2)	17% (2)
Fac.-admin. relations		75% (9)	17% (2)	8% (1)
Community relations	25% (3)	50% (6)	17% (2)	8% (1)
Title III success		83% (10)	17% (2)	

identify the most critical problems the institution will face. Presently, for example, a high-range and low-range institution might both be given money for the purpose of creating a cultural enrichment program for minority students. While the high-range school might succeed at this, the low-range school might fail miserably because it faces other more basic problems (e.g., perhaps staffing shortages were keeping one or more of the teachers from devoting proper amounts of time to the program). Because the low-range

institution was incapable of handling a relatively sophisticated program, the Title III money awarded would have been very poorly spent.

Eight viability variables were used in scoring these sample institutions:

1. *Leadership dynamism and efficiency.* This is a measure of the orientation to change and drive of the administration. "High-range" schools are found to have strong, dynamic presidents who are often good fund-raisers. Administrative overlapping, infighting, and/or complacency are causes for low marks on this measure.

2. *Financial stability.* High-scoring schools are relatively secure financially, with stable or growing enrollments and with dependable sources of income. Low scorers are marked by continual financial duress, perhaps declining enrollments, and insecurity over future financial matters.

3. *Range of programs and activities offered students.* A wide number of activities, such as football and marching bands, is almost always a great help in bringing students and faculty to a greater interest and involvement in the school and, most importantly, into closer interaction with one another. These activities are especially important in commuter-type schools where interaction is otherwise very low. Also measured here are the scopes of the academic and cultural programs relative to the needs of the students.

4. *Cost-effectiveness.* This measure is based primarily on how well the school used Title III monies. Were they applied to crucial problem areas with success? Or did the school miss badly on several programs with respect either to where the monies were applied or to their success? Schools that frequently discontinue programs earn low scores. Also measured in this area are the priorities of the administration. Are they in line with the needs of the students and community?

5. *Sense of role and long-range direction.* A good score is gained on this measure by schools which believe they have a specific task to accomplish, which have clear ideas about where they want to go and how to get there; in other words, those that have a sense of self-image. Low scores are given to schools that show confusion over their identity and purpose or whose beliefs about themselves are clearly at variance with the actual performance of the school.

6. *Students' demand for involvement and/or outreach efforts by the school to uninvolved students.* Many of the best developing institutions have sustained incidents of student demand for involvement in decisionmaking. This indicates that students want to be involved in the school. A viable institution is also one that consciously reaches out to bring in students previously only marginally attached to it. Cultural programs for minorities are one example of such an effort.

7. *Faculty-administration relations.* In high-scoring schools, administration and faculty tend to socialize with one another and tend to work in relative harmony. Low-scoring schools are found to exhibit much friction be

tween faculty and administration over such matters as salaries, religion, institutional goals, and job security. This measure is not perfect. Often in institutions with great vitality there is considerable controversy and conflict between the two groups, and often some hostility. Also, the faculty and administration are not likely to be close in highly developed institutions like Tuskegee, where the faculty often take more interest in their disciplines than in the institution.

8. *Community relations.* A "fair" score is assumed here unless there is mention of successful community outreach programs or of the strong support of the surrounding community, both of which merit a "good" score. A noticeable lack of community support or signs of the need to gain more community respect is evidence of "poor" standing in the community.

Title III success. This is a rough summary measure that seeks to combine the ideas of impact and effectiveness to give an overall impression of the success of Title III at these institutions.

These variables are not of equal weight. The first five (leadership dynamism and efficiency, financial stability, range of programs offered students, cost-effectiveness, and sense of role and long-range direction) seem the most consistent and meaningful indicators judging from statistics based on readings of case study material. Although still important, the other three measures (student demand for involvement and/or outreach to uninvolved students, faculty-administration relations, and community relations) are of more limited value due to their ambiguity or restricted scope.

It should be emphasized that standards for all of the eight measures are not absolute. They are relative to the type of school in question. A four-year academic and vocational institution with a "good" range of programs for students would obviously have a broader range of programs than a two-year, purely vocational institution that was also given a "good" rating. Similarly, a community junior college would be expected to have somewhat better community relations than a four-year private religious institution in the same area. At the same time, if the religious institution is completely shut off from the surrounding community, that is regarded as one small indication that the school is not interested in enlarging its scope.

Some of the criteria used in rating an institution on each viability measure are discussed below.

1. Institutions with *dynamic and forceful presidents* were far more likely to move toward development than those led by complacent and nonenergetic administrators. The causality here is obvious: by definition an energetic, dynamic leader is one who can keep the institution moving forward and who can be forceful in solving problems. One important measure of dynamic leadership is the president's interest in fund raising. In almost every

case, if the president was interested in and successful at fund raising, he had a dynamic spirit in other administrative areas as well. All high-range schools received either excellent or good scores on this measure, while 90 percent of the scores for low-range schools fell into either fair or poor rankings and 60 percent were poor.

Autocratic decisionmaking was not necessarily correlated with dynamic leadership. Many institutions showed hopeful signs of development with the arrival of a strong president who took steps to democratize decisionmaking responsibilities previously held by only one or two administrators. Yet there were instances where a very dynamic president jeopardized his efforts to develop the school by trying to dominate the students and faculty or by centralizing decisionmaking. At one institution, its president made dramatic and progressive changes, but alienated the faculty by willfully firing several from their ranks and alienated the students by failing to consult them on the changes. In cases like this, the administration was downgraded on the leadership measure. There were a few schools with strong presidents but weak and contentious lower-level administrators or much administrative overlap. These were occasionally the cause of low scores on this measure. Efficient administration was found to be most important in the effective use of available funds. Whenever important decisions were made by default outside the school (stage agencies, church sponsors, etc.), the institution also received a low score. It was found without exception in the few schools where this was the case that outside decisionmaking sapped the school's vitality and was very harmful to the development of an institutional self-image, another important variable.

2. The *financial stability* measure was rather easy to judge from the case study data. Those schools suffering financial instability *did not hesitate to admit it in hopes of receiving more aid,* and those that were not suffering boasted of their stability. If this study provides an accurate representation, few developing institutions have been financially stable during these last few years. Only 14 out of the 41 in the study were judged as falling in the "excellent" or "good" range on this measure. Financial stability was taken to be an important viability measure on the grounds that those institutions that lack this security are unable to follow through on academic plans, often cannot pay competitive salaries, and often are understaffed and underequipped. At the same time, schools enjoying relative financial stability are under less pressure to maintain only "survival activities," and can, in a sense, psychologically afford to develop. New construction is not always an indicator of financial stability. For example, one school, anticipating an increased enrollment, squandered its endowments on new construction. When it subsequently suffered a drastic drop in enrollment, it was seriously imperiled financially.

Financial security alone does not insure institutional success. The study

furnishes several examples of institutions that have relatively low cost-effectiveness and relatively high financial stability.

3. *The range of programs and activities offered students* is another important measure of institutional viability. As explained above, the range-of-programs measure was weighted with respect to size and type of institution. However, even at a small, rural junior college, the needs of students are often broader than might be assumed. We were also concerned in this measure with the range of activities the institutions offered their students. When students merely put in their hours in the classroom and have no other interest in or attachment to the school, they can be expected to be bored and uninterested in the institution. The case studies indicate that activities are an important factor in improving student morale, in bringing both students and faculty to a greater interest and involvement in the school, and, most importantly, into closer interaction with one another. This was a recurrent pattern in our study: when football and a marching band or similar activities are introduced, student morale jumps and students begin to take a greater interest in the school, both of which are important for developing institutions. Other schools mentioned that their basketball teams were the most important "cohesive force" on campus. Activities seem to be most important for and least common at commuter-type schools where outside-of-class interaction is otherwise extremely limited.

4. *Cost-effectiveness* is an important measure for determining the general impact of Title III monies, as well as in helping to determine the viability of developing institutions. The bulk of the data for the determination of judgments on this measure came from information concerning the success or failure of Title III programs at the study institutions. A number of criteria were used in this evaluation, including speculation as to whether the Title III money was allocated to and spent in an area appropriate to the priority problems of the school, and, if warranted, to those areas appropriate to the surrounding community as well. Such judgments cannot help but be debatable, given the limitations of our data sources.

Not surprisingly, only 15 of the 41 schools in the study fell into the "good" range on this measure. This does not mean that at the remaining 26 institutions Title III had no impact; only that in some of them the impact could have been greater if administration of funds had been more successful or if funds had been applied elsewhere. In other cases, the cost-effectiveness judgment was based partially on non-Title III programs mentioned in the case studies. For example, some institutions that began new programs and then dropped them received low scores on this measure.

In fact, five more of the schools received "good" ratings for their use of Title III funds than received "good" ratings on the cost-effectiveness measure. Thus, in our opinion, nearly half (20 out of 41) of the schools used

their Title III monies with "good" success. Another 15 schools used the money with "fair" success, and the remaining six used the funds poorly or ineffectively. (Evaluation was adjusted to reflect the amounts of money received by each institution.)

The breakdown by stages for overall use of Title III funds was as follows:

	Good	Fair	Poor
Low Range (10)	1	5	4
Medium Range (21)	11	8	2
High Range (10)	8	2	0

As in the cost-effectiveness scale, "poor" scores resulted principally from evidence of quick discontinuance or bungling of programs and from other evidence of failure to successfully use most Title III resources. "Good" scores were given for successful application of resources to priority needs.

5. The final "first order" measure of institutional viability deals with whether the institution possesses a *sense of its role* in education and in the community, and whether it shows a commitment to long-range developmental goals. For example, on one campus, a chief administrator remarked, "our change in title from college to university has really given us a task—to live up to that title." On the other hand, one president reported that the role of the school was "to provide personalized and high-quality teaching attention to students"; yet it was clear from other interviews that the performance-orientation of the teaching staff was very depersonalized and perfunctory. This discrepancy earned the school a low score on this "sense-of-role" measure. In other cases the respondents were unable or unwilling to verbalize any sense of role they wished to play in education or in their community, and for this also the institution was penalized with a low score. Schools lacking this type of self-image seemed unable to organize their programs. The correlation between cost-effectiveness and sense of role was high. Nearly 65 percent of the schools had the same scores on both measures. When an institution voluntarily conducted several small self-studies or one major self-study within the previous six years, this was regarded as evidence that the institution was taking its role in education seriously. Without a sense of role institutions will be unable to develop the selective negligence that goes with cost-effectiveness.

6. *Student demand for involvement and outreach efforts by the school* are the first of measures somewhat more difficult to gauge. This item depicts several dimensions of student involvement in a general sense. Most of the schools in the study experienced student demonstrations centered around demands for more student involvement in decisionmaking or in other institutional affairs. These demonstrations were regarded as positive viability

factors, since they suggested to us a high level of student loyalty and interest in the institution. It was inferred that student apathy in relation to institutional governance generally indicated a marginal attachment and interest in the school and could reflect a lack of vitality in the teaching process as well. The other component, outreach to uninvolved students, obviously suggests institutional commitment to participation but was not really common enough to merit a separate category. This measure was scored as follows: significant instances of "student demands" or of efforts at "outreach" were scored as "good"; if there were some instances of either, the institution received a "fair" score; and if there were no instances of either, the institution received a "poor" score.

Another reason why this measure may be less useful than some of the others is that the results from our study do not statistically differentiate the aggregate of medium-range schools from the aggregate of high-range schools. They do, however, distinguish the low-range schools from the higher-range schools.

7. In high-scoring schools, *administration and faculty* tend to socialize with one another and work in relative harmony. In low-scoring schools, there is much friction between faculty and administration over such matters as salaries, religion, institutional goals, and job security. At religious institutions there is often friction between religious administrators and lay faculty; while at women's institutions the male teachers often report a sense of being "left out."

However, this measure is also less than perfect. Often in institutions with great vitality, there is considerable controversy and conflict between administration and faculty and often some hostility. Complacency can be more detrimental to a developing institution than controversy. This point is illustrated at one institution where the move toward adopting a new "life-needs curriculum" (their most innovative program) was the final result of emotionally charged meetings between the faculty and administration. This conflict indicated a real involvement in the issue, which was later the basis for increased rapport. Similarly, at highly sophisticated "developing institutions" the faculty and administration are not likely to be close, since the faculty will take more interest in their specific disciplines than in the institution as a whole. Despite these qualifications, the measure is easily justified. We found that when the faculty at most developing institutions is hesitant to follow the administration's leadership, generally they do not confront the issue politically. Instead, they often bury themselves in teaching duties and then blame administrators for mistakes. Because this occurred so frequently, it is important for the faculty and administration to be working in relative harmony.

8. A "fair" score on the *community relations* measure was assumed unless

there was mention of successful community outreach programs or of strong support for the college from the surrounding community, both of which merited a "good" score. A mention of lack of community support or of the need to gain more community support was regarded as evidence of "poor" standing in the community. Poor standing in the community can be a very crucial factor for a low-range institution. The survival of small colleges, especially community colleges, is often dependent on the backing of the immediate community. Obtaining that support where it is lacking can be the single most important priority for these schools. This measure may lose its significance somewhat for higher-range schools. However, considering our total group, it is the differentiation of the low-range schools from the medium-range schools to which the measure fails to contribute, while it does seem to help differentiate the lower-range schools from high range schools.

Taken as a whole and with careful reading, we think these variables can give a reasonably accurate picture of a developing institution's stage of development.

To recapitulate, for conceptual purposes, developing institutions can be grouped into one of three stages of development. If the institution receives a majority of "poor" ratings for the eight variables, and provided that it receives no more than two "good" ratings, or if it has a mix of "fair" and "poor" scores with no "good" scores, then it can accurately be identified as a low-range institution. If an institution receives a majority of "fair" ratings with perhaps a mix of "good" and "poor" ratings on the remaining measures, then it can be regarded as a medium-range institution, provided that neither "good" nor "poor" scores dominate the "first order" variables. Finally, if the school scores primarily in the "good" range with some "fair" scores and perhaps some "excellent" scores as well, and provided that it has no more than one "poor" score on the "first order" variables, then it can safely be regarded as a high-range institution.

The allocation process can be improved once institutions have been categorized in this manner. The purpose of Title III has been to enable developing institutions to move into the mainstream of higher education. Following the model, the purpose of Title III might be more realistically seen as enabling developing institutions to move from their present stage of development to the stage immediately higher. In line with this approach, Title III might review the funding proposals of colleges in each of the three stages quite differently. A low-range school is one that is either not developing or is developing much too slowly for the needs of its clientele. The kinds of questions that should be asked about these institutions are the most basic: Are they paying their bills? Admitting students? Are their placement figures high enough to indicate that they are doing a minimally satisfactory job in preparing vocational students? Are teachers competent? Is there a problem

with understaffing? Does the institution have the support of the surrounding community? Is there an institutional self-image and mission?

It seems that certain of the variables are more important for schools at one level of development than they might be for schools at another. As noted, "community relations" can be of crucial importance to a low-range school. Also, "faculty-administration relations" would seem to be a much more meaningful measure for those institutions at which cooperation on this level is especially important. The "sense of role," "leadership dynamism," and "range-of-programs" variables are also of key importance in answering the most basic questions about development, and are the most meaningful for the purpose of isolating where the major development problems relevant to Title III are to be found for each low-range institution.

Title III cannot hire new presidents for these schools or pay their teachers higher salaries, but Title III can solve some basic survival problems. To do so, Title III first should deal pragmatically with the major priority problems at these schools and leave the more colorful "showcase" programs for the higher-range institutions. If leadership is a major problem, Title III should provide specific assistance to each administrative area. Similarly, Title III can fund self-studies for "sense-of-role" confusion, add fields of concentration in inadequate curricula, perhaps assist in creating the position of activities director for "uncohesive" campuses, and fund community service programs where community relations are critically poor.

Obviously, Title III cannot analyze each candidate institution in the depth our case studies have allowed. A questionnaire can indicate an institution's place in our typology only incompletely. But it is true that many of the factors that emerge from the case studies as being most important (e.g., leadership and sense of institutional mission and role) are not currently being assessed at all when an institution applies for Title III funds. Serious consideration might be given to better assessment of the standing of applicant institutions on some of these crucial dimensions. This, of course, might mean additions to the Title III Washington office for staff and travel, plus some revision of the Title III application forms.

It is believed that low-range institutions should receive more than a proportional share of available Title III funds. Their cost-effectiveness will generally be lower and their needs greater. To improve an institution's cost-effectiveness, it is a good practice to build the amounts annually rather than initially showering a school with a large sum. It should be emphasized that there is a need for an accountability procedure to be built into the funding agreement, since the administrators and the faculty of these institutions are sometimes inclined to use funds injudiciously.

A Low-Range Institution Profile

The following profile from a case study of a typical low-range institution will serve as an explanatory model. This school was integrated in 1964 and Title III brought in consultants to help minimize friction during integration. The consultants' proposals were partially successful; however, black students still feel alienated from the school and their desires for more vocational courses have not been adequately met. Another important concern is that in spite of adult education and other community articulation programs in operation at the school, there is a need to gain community support. Also there is some administrative in-fighting and apparent lack of success in bringing minority students into the mainstream of the school. Title III has reportedly helped the teaching effort greatly through the funding of workshops, allowing time off for advanced study, and by bringing in outside consultants. Title III also has funded an Educational Media Center that seems somewhat out of line with the direction of the school, a cultural series for the community that failed badly, a developmental learning program that never got off the ground, and materials for counseling services and consortium efforts that have been limited by ill feelings and mistrust.

It seems clear that Title III could have been better used on this campus. Funds should have been applied to specific administrative improvements and to development of the vocational track. In addition, consultants were needed to develop good student services, to discuss racial relations with the administrative staff, and to look into the improvement of community relations. The money originally directed toward the Media Center, the cultural series for the community, and possibly the counseling materials, could have gone toward programs in those areas, and could have been so directed had this school been identified as a low-range institution. The developmental learning program was a priority concern for the institution and may have failed because of inadequate funding. Remedial efforts generally are high-risk and need large amounts of funds to succeed if they succeed at all.

Title III at this campus was used inappropriately when funds were used for "showcase" programs, such as the Educational Media Center and the cultural series. Clearly, Title III monies at low-range institutions should only be used in programs directed toward meeting basic priority problems and should help these institutions become aware of their options. There should be a willingness to award relatively large grants in helping these institutions develop, and there should be an accountability procedure built into the funding agreement.

The only other concern about low-range institutions is whether there might be some that are in such difficulty that it would be unwise to channel money to them. There are some schools that operate on a budget so restricted that they probably cannot use large amounts effectively at first, but

we found no college in our study to be both completely "undeveloped" or "not developing."

A Medium-Range Institution Profile

Medium-range schools can be identified in the same way as low-range institutions. In general, medium-range schools should be more easily and economically moved to a higher stage than low-range institutions. These are schools that for one reason or another have not yet reached the "take-off point," the point where they are competent in all basic areas and could be considered high-range institutions. Yet they are closer by far to reaching that point than the low-range institutions. To reach the take-off point, the college must improve all "poor" scores on the viability measures to at least "fair" and should have "good" or "excellent" scores on the "leadership dynamism," "sense of role," and "range of programs" measures as well. A "good" score on the "student demands" scale is an added plus, as are "good" scores on the other two more ambiguous measures, though they are still less important. Generally, less money should be required to move medium-range institutions to the higher stage than to move low-range institutions to the higher rung. Of the three ranges, the money required to move medium-range institutions to high-range institutions may in fact be the least, since high-range institutions will sometimes need rather large amounts of money to finance their specialized and more ambitious programs.

A medium-range college was selected to illustrate its relationship to Title III. It is a small, rural, junior college that traditionally attracts low-ability students, 70 percent of whom transfer, and the remaining 30 percent receive terminal degrees. The once inadequate terminal program has expanded and will continue to do so if funds are available. Major problems were in the lack of minority representation on the staff and faculty, dissatisfaction on the part of some faculty, and a campus that is not "closely knit." Title III has awarded relatively large amounts of funds to this college that, for the most part, have produced major advances. The faculty release-time program improved morale, and the administrative conferences have yielded marked improvements in the governance and administration of the school. On the other hand, the Title III-funded development office failed, the consultants and faculty workshops were recorded as being of little value, and participation in the consortium is seen as something of an imposition. Because of increased demands for remedial services, more staff must be added, and there is some desire for additional terminal programs as well as job placement services. To move this campus securely into the high-range category, Title III would probably have to continue faculty development efforts, seek to improve the minority hiring at the institution, and perhaps bring in consultants to investigate ways of strengthening the interaction on campus through nonacademic activities and programs. Though all of the successful

programs appear to have been responses to priority needs, some of the failed programs appear to have been frills.

The high-range schools are those that have achieved in a modest way and no longer need to worry constantly about obtaining "general support" funds. However, most of them express concern about all funds all the time to the extent that it sometimes seems as if "worry" itself must be a viability factor. In any case, high-range institutions have less serious problems than the other institutional types and can manage large amounts of money successfully in the development of autonomous and ambitious "special interest" programs.

The question will arise as to when a developing institution of this type is no longer in this category but has joined the mainstream of "developed" institutions. Our study contained two or three schools that by any standard would have to be considered developed institutions. The developed institution is still growing but can function on its own, in this case, without Title III funds. By this measure, only one institution surveyed could be considered a developed institution at this time. Several others are dependent on high levels of federal funding and would suffer greatly without Title III support. With the highest level institutions it is important that Title III gradually reduce annual funds. Otherwise, Title III stands in danger of nursing strong institutions indefinitely, thus failing its real program goals and the needs of the less well-endowed institutions. In other cases high-range institutions will need rather large amounts of money to develop the kind of special pre- and paraprofessional programs found in many first-rank universities.

A High-Range Institution Profile

This section profiles a high-range institution that has applied Title III refunds successfully to its programs. It expanded its sociology department, allowed many faculty release time, began a successful cultural series, symphony orchestra, and choir, developed a working remedial program for the increasing numbers of lower-ability students the school is beginning to accept, and worked very successfully on consortium conferences and workshops. The college has no pressing needs; students, faculty, and administration all seem happy with the school's recent development and with the prospects for the future. Since the expansion of the sociology department, there has been some desire to expand other academic and trade departments as well. This school was described as a "good, warm, small college capable of producing outstanding graduates." Title III funds have been decreasing since 1968. This seems to be the right approach, since the school is getting stronger every year even with smaller grants, and since alumni and other giving has grown appreciably during that time.

In general (but with many exceptions), Title III has often had a profound

impact on institutions receiving substantial assistance, and generally has had less impact on those institutions receiving less assistance. Consistency of funding is of great importance. In some cases, Title III assistance has transformed schools into completely different institutions. Title III has effected mergers, helped move schools into more relevant institutional commitments, and given a new lease on life to many tired, faltering institutions. In less successful cases, it has pushed an institution out of its routine role to a point where the institution cannot return to its comfortable past yet does not have a clear idea of what to do or where to go. There may not be the institutional drive present to respond positively to the push, although the school will usually continue to be driven artifically by Title III economic assistance as long as that assistance lasts. In the long run, this is not particularly effective or efficient. One of the major purposes of Title III assistance should be to build the kind of internal drive that permits effective management of external resources. Analysis of some of the viability variables discussed here can help with this task.

In reviewing some of the programs of the institutional sample, several pervasive trends emerge. One is that the quickest way to boost short-term faculty morale is to allow faculty time off to return to school for graduate study. This is perceived as a universally successful program at small as well as "developed" schools. When it is necessary to improve faculty morale quickly, this has proven to be a very effective means. (Whether or not teaching is improved is another matter.)

In an effort to prove the loyalty and commitment of the teaching staff, administrators and faculty often point to low faculty salaries and remark that faculty must be committed if they remain in spite of low compensation. In some cases, this could point to a lack of ambition or ability. Obviously, this would not be good for any school. It may be that some faculty should be encouraged to pursue additional academic work. Also, short-term, released-time grants for the improvement of specific courses might yield favorable results.

Several schools have used administrative improvement funds successfully. Thanks to an in-service training grant, one such school was able to send several key administrators to a conference on "Team Concepts in Administration." Following the conference, a previously contentious and disorganized administration was able to work more smoothly with one another and to recognize and respect jurisdictional boundaries; also following that conference, decisionmaking was greatly democratized. The improvement in administration at the school was mentioned by all interview respondents. With a sensitivity to the needs of the college, Title III sometimes can precipitate major advances with small amounts of money; in this case, the only money used was for the conference registration fee and travel to the conference.

The case studies suggest that the use of outside consultants and the development of remedial programs were two of the most difficult areas for successful employment of Title III funds. Several of the schools surveyed used consultant services for special problems but few used them with consistent success. Consultants are not present on a *continual* basis to ensure the implementation of any new ideas and this proved to be a problem area.

On the other hand, there were some clues to successfully designing future remedial programs, to the extent that this responsibility is not subsumed by the Special Services for Disadvantaged Students program. First, it seems that most schools engaged in remedial efforts are not asking for, and therefore not receiving, enough money to do the job properly. There is a very high incidence of failure with these efforts. It should not be surprising that these programs require rather large amounts of money—educating the student who has been turned off to school for many years is not an easy task. It requires specially trained personnel, proper media, the right attitudes, counseling and other support efforts, and a real institutional commitment to the idea. One school that functions well in this area may illustrate what can be done. Its program offers 75 selected students intensive remedial and counseling assistance with specially trained personnel. From our view, programs that do not combine counseling services simultaneously with remedial services are far less likely to succeed; and those not adequately staffed with specially trained personnel are even less likely to succeed.

Nearly every school in our case study sample—even the high-range schools—had trouble with their counseling services; for example, when a vocational school has low placement figures due to inadequate counseling and placement services, or when, as noted above, counseling services are not coordinated with remedial services. While the reasons varied, it did seem that this was an area where Title III could do more.

Once an institution has achieved some stability in areas basic to its development, it should be ready to move on to special programs. This may mean building a special new field of concentration from the ground up. One college, which successfully used funds for special programs, developed an entirely new plan for its future. The integrating force at this campus was the Appalachian environment within which the college existed. By studying how Appalachian student life needs could be met by Title III funds, this institution was able to develop a curriculum directly related to Appalachian culture and its relationship to the outside society, and to work intensively within the Appalachian community in "outreach" programs. The project worked because the staff of the college became philosophically committed to it and were thorough in their preparation, and because, before beginning study of the question, the college was already sound in finance, administration, faculty, and in student services. It was ready to move into new areas and to take some risks.

Summary

A few basic impressions from the case study data should be emphasized. Title III must attempt to recognize what stage of development an applicant institution has reached before allocating funds to assist the institution specifically to meet its needs. Several of the institutions lack specificity in terms of what they want to do, and some Title III monies are not being spent for the purposes for which they were intended. Some of these problems could be alleviated if the application procedures used in Title III, as well as the monitoring procedures used after the grants are given, would be made to reflect the location of each institution on some sort of developmental time-line. The five basic viability variables can be useful descriptive and diagnostic tools for this purpose.

Although there was a relationship between size of grant and impact of Title III funds on campus development, there were some instances of a small allocation producing amazing results. Generally, this is the consequence of a personal dedication to a program on the part of an individual(s) on the specific campus, and the money serves a psychological purpose that may be as important as its other values. But without local leadership, even large amounts of Title III money can be spent without any consequences. Title III coordinators generally spent little time on Title III work. Campus leadership potential appears the most important single characteristic in distinguishing the successful Title III programs from the less successful ones.

Institutions in the low range of institutional development cannot be considered on cost-effectiveness terms, as they are usually searching for a sense of institutional mission usually necessary before institutions can make cost-effective decisions. It takes more support to move an institution from low to medium than from medium to high, and a greater risk must be taken. Given the kinds of institutional needs described for institutions at the low viability level, larger amounts of Title III funds should be directed toward the needs of these institutions. However, the low-level institutions should be accountable for implementing the programs that make the best sense, given their level of development.

Several institutions were clearly ready to move into more specialized and stimulating programs. The concept of a developing institution should be broad enough to permit a campus to develop some really fresh and vital new program thrusts, as this is also a way of reaching toward the "mainstream" and providing models for emulation by other institutions not yet at the take-off point.

The Questionnaire Survey of 325 Developing Institutions and Their Programs

Developing institutions have several distinctive characteristics. Geographically, they are heavily concentrated in the Southeast, and black colleges are proportionally overrepresented compared to national figures, as are institutions enrolling large numbers of students from poor financial backgrounds.

In terms of control, the institutions in the questionnaire survey did not greatly differ from the nation as a whole: about half are public, the other half private, many of the public institutions are two-year with specialization in technical vocational programs, while the private institutions are mostly liberal arts. Of the 48 black institutions in our study, about half are also public; however, the black institutions as a group have a greater proportion of liberal arts institutions.

By size, Title III institutions had crossed over the "1,000 student gap" between 1965 and 1970. The smaller schools tended to be in technical-vocational areas, the larger ones in four-year and graduate liberal arts. During the time period covered, the black institutions moved past the 1,000 student mark much faster than did the rest of our institutions.

There was a marked decrease in the number of low-income students in developing institutions from 1965 to 1970, either because of a change in institutions selected for Title III grants or an increase in low-income students from the same institutions. A shift in institutions with heavy enrollments from low-income students has occurred from the Southeast to the Plains. The black institutions, always high in enrollments of low-income students, have slightly increased their proportion of low-income students.

Title III programs have been given overwhelmingly to institutions with large numbers of black students, but other minorities have not been equally well represented. Black student enrollment levels are now higher in two-year and in public institutions, while sectarian colleges have not shown much increase in numbers of black students enrolled. With the exception of two-year colleges, developing institutions enroll sizeable numbers of out-of-state students. Four-year colleges (including most black institutions) are heavily residential, while two-year programs are commuter, as in the rest of American higher education. More students are being graduated from Title III institutions, again following a trend nationally.

Most white Title III institutions employ few black faculty members, although a few have shown increases. Black institutions tend to have diversified somewhat, and have added some whites to previously all-black faculties.

Overall, blacks have never been more than a very small percentage of most non-black developing institutions. More faculty members at developing institutions now have their doctorate, particularly at black institutions. Title III institutions seem to have shown a marked increase in younger faculty at the lower ranks, which should increase their flexibility. Faculty members tend to be concentrated in the humanities. With the exception of two-year institutions, most institutions increased their proportion of teachers in the humanities from 1965 to 1970.

As with all of higher education, the number of administrators in Title III institutions is growing, especially in four-year institutions and in the black colleges. This also means increased specialization of administrative functions. With the exception of Catholic women's colleges, Title III institutions have few female administrators. The number of administrators with advanced degrees has also increased, particularly in black colleges. Relatively few Title III institutions employed large numbers of part-time administrators who also taught. Black institutions still make slightly greater use of such part-time administrators than did the rest of the sample.

Trustees in developing institutions are overwhelmingly white and male. There has been a slight trend to increase representation, but it is not shared by the black colleges. There tend to be only slightly more black trustees and even fewer women trustees in black institutions. However, in terms of national norms, the representation of women and minorities may be somewhat better in Title III institutions. Most boards met either quarterly or semiannually, with a smaller minority meeting monthly (mainly public institutions at the two-year level). About 60 percent of our boards were primarily made up of individuals living within 100 miles of the institution.

Some reluctance to release financial data was encountered, particularly on income generated from foundation grants. However, it was clear that sectarian and black colleges have shown sizeable increases in grants of over $100,000 a year from private foundations. Also there was an increased number of "developing institutions" with endowments of over $1 million. Furthermore, a marked increase in the number of Title III institutions with annual library expenditures over $100,000 a year was noted, with black institutions showing strong gains in library expenditures during the period surveyed (1965-66 to 1970-71). An increase also occurred in the number of extension and public services programs of over $100,000 a year.

Program Summary: Grants Awarded and Their Success

By and large, the emphasis has been on the institutions' judgments of their "most successful programs" (usually determined by the Title III coordinator), rather than on the "most helpful" category, since the latter rating was prompted in many cases because there were no other available funds except Title III. Consequently, the judgment of "success" was of more significance.

Data was provided by presidents, deans, business officers, registrars, and Title III coordinators from each campus. The totals provided here are larger than those for the financial data, since institutions were more willing to talk about programs than money.

As shown in Table 2, the largest grant category was faculty development, with 1,501 of 3,389 awards; next came curriculum with 848; administrative improvement with 599; and student development with 450. In terms of most successful programs, however, faculty development did not do as well as expected, with 44 percent of the programs and only 33 percent of the nominations designated most successful. The other three categories were approximately even, with each one gaining about 3 percent more votes for "most successful program" than their percentage of total programs would suggest.

Table 2. Most Successful Programs, All Institutions, by Specific Program

	Total Grants Awarded, % of 3398	Most Successful Programs, % of 908	Least Successful Programs, % of 278
Curriculum Development			
Basic Curriculum	495 (14.6%)	156 (17.2%)	49 (17.6%)
Remedial Curriculum	65 (1.9%)	49 (5.4%)	12 (4.3%)
Occupational Curriculum	82 (2.4%)	31 (3.4%)	18 (6.5%)
Other	206 (6.1%)	35 (3.9%)	7 (2.5%)
Total	848 (25.0%)	271 (29.9%)	86 (30.9%)
Faculty Development			
National Teaching Fellows	640 (18.8%)	114 (12.6%)	9 (3.2%)
Professors Emeriti	42 (1.2%)	9 (1.0%)	7 (2.5%)
In-service Training	269 (7.9%)	56 (6.2%)	34 (12.2%)
Advanced Graduate Training	351 (10.3%)	90 (9.9%)	8 (2.9%)
Other	199 (5.9%)	30 (3.3%)	29 (10.4%)
Total	1501 (44.1%)	299 (33.0%)	87 (31.2%)
Administrative Improvement			
In-service Training	124 (3.6%)	48 (5.3%)	19 (6.8%)
Advanced Graduate Training	38 (1.1%)	13 (1.4%)	4 (1.4%)
Use of Outside Consultants	147 (4.3%)	67 (7.4%)	25 (9.0%)
Establishment of New Offices	175 (5.2%)	42 (4.6%)	6 (2.2%)
Other	115 (3.4%)	22 (2.4%)	16 (5.8%)
Total	599 (17.6%)	192 (21.1%)	70 (25.2%)
Student Services			
Counselling and Guidance	193 (5.7%)	73 (8.0%)	14 (5.0%)
Remedial and Tutorial	43 (1.3%)	27 (3.0%)	9 (3.2%)
Health Services	1 (0.03%)	3 (0.3%)	0 (0.0%)
Other	213 (6.3%)	43 (4.7%)	12 (4.3%)
Total	450 (13.3%)	146 (16.0%)	35 (12.5%)
Grand Total	3398 (100%)	908 (100%)	278 (100%)

For "least successful" nominations, the concentration was in three areas: curriculum, faculty, and administration. Administrative improvement programs fared worse than expected.

Looking at the breakdown by specific program, certain areas stand out. Curriculum development programs did well, with 25 percent of the programs and 30 percent considered "most successful." Both basic and remedial curricula did well, receiving about 3 percent more successful nominations than their percentage of total grants would have suggested. In faculty development, the NTF program, with almost 19 percent of the grants awarded, acquired only 12.6 percent of the "most successful" votes. All the faculty development programs were slightly less successful than their percentage of the total programs would suggest.

Administrative improvement programs were more successful than predicted in the areas of in-service training and use of outside consultants. Establishment of new offices was not quite as high as expected. In student services, both counselling and guidance and remedial and tutorial did slightly better than their percentage of total grants awarded. (One program in health services was nominated three times as "most successful" because two institutions had such programs but not funded by Title III and put them in by mistake.)

As discussed earlier, there is no such thing as a representative developing institution, and it is concluded that there is no such thing as a representative Title III program either. Funding policies under Title III have varied considerably over time. During fiscal year 1965-66, the first year for which funds were appropriated, the program as a whole was still in an experimental stage: only $5 million was appropriated and selection criteria had not yet been developed. After the first year, 12 institutions out of 124 supported in the first year were not considered to be "developing," and were dropped from the program during the second year (Table 3) .

Since 1966-67, annual appropriations have been much larger, and individual grants to consortia and individual colleges have increased considerably. Nevertheless, there always were (and still are) vast differences in the size of individual grants, ranging from about $2,000 annually (for institutions only marginally affiliated with a Title III consortium) to over $100,000 annually (to a few direct-grant institutions.) This tremendous diversity in grant size provides a serious obstacle to cost-effectiveness assessment of these programs. It is recognized that in several of our case studies, small grants did sometimes produce spectacular results in some small program areas. Also, the benefits derived from using Title III funds are probably cumulative, since recipients of Title III funds are connected with the program for an average of three years.

The character of evaluation itself causes some problems as well. A proper and unbiased extended evaluation of even a small number of Title III-

Table 3. Monies Awarded, All Title III Programs

	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69	1969-70	1970-71	Total
Curriculum							
Less than $20,000	0	19	69	70	74	89	321
$20,000-49,999	1	6	32	37	53	27	156
$50,000 or more	2	7	35	47	45	52	188
							665
Faculty Development							
Less than $20,000	2	33	40	43	60	81	259
$20,000-49,999	1	23	96	73	97	82	372
$50,000 or more	0	10	52	50	35	36	183
							814
Administrative Improvement							
Less than $20,000	2	17	59	60	64	66	268
$20,000-49,999	0	0	17	27	30	40	114
$50,000 or more	0	3	3	11	12	18	47
							429
Student Services							
Less than $20,000	1	10	36	48	63	76	234
$20,000-49,999	0	2	5	15	20	26	68
$50,000 or more	0	0	4	11	12	14	41
							343
Total Awards							
Less than $20,000	5	79	204	221	261	312	1082
$20,000-49,999	2	31	150	152	200	175	710
$50,000 or more	2	20	94	119	104	120	459
Total Awards per year*	9	130	448	492	565	607	2251

*Totals do not agree with Table 2, as awards were often for several programs.

funded programs would have been outside the scope of this study. (Even the case studies cannot provide a "perfect" in-depth examination of Title III-funded programs, since the interviewers were forced to inventory their findings at one point in time rather than over an extended and therefore more reliable period of time.) The findings and inferences in this part of the report are primarily based on institutional self-description and self-assessment, which can be subject to errors of omission or commission.

The differences in consistency or regional funding patterns of awards made between 1966 and 1970 is striking. Although three years of involvement was the national average, in the Southeast the average was almost four, while in the Northeast and Midwest and Far West the average dropped to nearly two years. Certainly continuity of funding is vitally important in areas like curriculum and faculty development, and thus it may not be possible to reflect any overall view regarding impact of Title III funding, since there was variation by geography in continuity of funding. (However, this would lead one to expect that institutions in the Southeast, having had more continuous funding, would have to produce more results just to remain at par.

We have pointed out earlier that it is almost impossible to make valid causal statements about the impact of Title III funds in situations where programs are not financed wholly by Title III. This turned out to be a bigger problem than anticipated. In virtually every program for every year, Title III funds provided half or more of the total dollars only about 50 percent of the time.

As Table 3 indicates, there were more faculty development grants (814) than any other, with curriculum (665) a fairly close second. Then there is a sharp drop to administrative improvement programs (429), followed by student services (343). Note that the largest number of grants awarded was in the less than $20,000 category. The only category in which this was not the case was in faculty development programs. The funding strategy seemed particularly clear in student services programs, where an overwhelming number of the grants made were in the less than $20,000 category. It is somewhat unclear why Title III staff felt programs could be mounted in the student development and services area for so little money. However, it is clear that considerable resources were placed in faculty and curriculum development, perhaps assuming that if these areas were strong, administrative and student service improvements could be added later.

It is not at all certain that programs in student services were very successful (see Table 2, which provides data on program success). Indeed, the case studies provided evidence to suggest that programs in this area were not working well at all. The programs in administrative improvement also were rated by the institutions as somewhat less helpful than funding in other areas. This was particularly true when outside consultants were used.

Discussions of the reasons given for the relative success or lack thereof will

be presented as each type of funding is analyzed. It is clear that there were some limitations due to an institution's natural desire to indicate its programs were working so that it might obtain more Title III funds in the future.

Table 4 contains a summary of the total number of grants awarded for all years included in the survey.

Table 4. Total Number of Grants Awarded, All Years

	Direct-Grant	Participating	Coordinators of Consortia	Total
Curriculum Development				
Basic Curriculum	233	187	75	495
Remedial Curriculum	34	26	5	65
Occupational/Career Curriculum	49	21	12	82
Other	87	94	25	206
	403	328	117	848
Faculty Development				
National Teaching Fellows	345	229	66	640
Professors Emeriti	30	11	1	42
In-service Training	102	130	37	269
Advanced Graduate Training	180	126	45	351
Other	103	75	21	199
	760	571	170	1501
Administrative Improvement				
In-service Training	51	56	17	124
Advanced Graduate Training	15	15	8	38
Use of Outside Consultants	70	60	17	147
Establishment of New Offices	68	86	21	175
Other	56	43	16	115
	260	260	79	599
Student Services				
Counseling and Guidance	93	77	23	193
Remedial and Tutorial	31	10	2	43
Health Services	0	1	0	1
Other	123	68	22	213
	247	156	47	450

Total, All Programs = 3398

25.0% of all grants for Curriculum Development
44.2% of all grants for Faculty Development
17.6% of all grants for Administrative Improvement
13.2% of all grants for Student Services

Impact of Title III on Direct-Grant Institutions

Direct-grant institutions have a direct contractual relationship with the USOE. Such institutions have won their contracts after submitting a pro-

posal for Title III funding to the USOE in direct competition with other colleges competing for the same resources. However, participating institutions can obtain Title III funds through consortium membership and do not have to submit their own proposals. That direct-grant institutions have had the resources to produce an acceptable proposal puts them immediately in a rather special position among Title III recipients. In this way, the heightened entrepreneurial value of this aspect of the direct-grant strategy may be an important motivating factor, at least for institutions ready to compete (see Table 5).

Table 5. Grants Awarded and Judgment of Program Success, Direct-Grant Institutions

	Total Number of Grants Awarded	Most Successful Programs	Least Successful Programs
Curriculum			
Basic Curriculum	233	69	23
Remedial Curriculum	34	21	4
Occupational/Career Curriculum	49	18	5
Other	87	6	2
	403	114	34
Faculty Development			
National Teaching Fellows	345	56	6
Professors Emeriti	30	5	2
In-service Training	102	14	12
Advanced Graduate Training	180	45	4
Other	103	15	11
	760	135	35
Administrative Improvement			
In-service Training	51	20	3
Advanced Graduate Training	15	5	1
Use of Consultants	70	31	10
Offices with New Functions	68	16	3
Other	56	9	2
	260	81	19
Student Services			
Counseling and Guidance	93	37	7
Tutorial and Remedial	31	13	6
Health Services	0	0	0
Other	123	20	8
	247	70	21
Totals	1670	400	109

Curriculum Development – Until 1967-68, the number of direct-grant institutions that had obtained Title III funds for curriculum development was very small. In that year their number reached 75. Subsequently the number declined somewhat to 60 institutions in 1970-71.

Since 1965-66, 233 direct-grant institutions receiving Title III funds for curriculum development have used these funds for the development of their *basic curriculum*. Of the 287 grants made during the whole period, one hundred and thirty-five were less than $20,000.

The single largest group (55) of direct-grant programs used their basic curriculum funds to add new academic subjects. The second largest group (32) spent these funds on research on curricular revision. Third in importance (18) was the establishment of a basic skills program. The vast majority (105) of these programs were funded only for one year.

Some institutions used basic curriculum funds to change the format rather than the content of their course offerings. For example, one school used the funds to research and plan a new calendar, while another school experimented with accelerated programs. Among the more interesting traditional uses (that is, the use of basic curriculum funds to expand the existing curriculum) was a college that had a cooperative arrangement with a theater club in a nearby city to aid drama students in meeting the "theatrical profession's standards of excellence and [to] prepare students to teach drama." A number of Afro-American studies programs were also funded this way.

In the area of *remedial programs*, the two largest groups of users were those allocating funds for the development of basic skills programs (16 institutions) and those allocating them for the establishment of developmental reading programs (21). Again, the majority of these programs (31) were funded only for one year.

Fewer than 25 percent of all direct-grant institutions used curriculum development funds in the area of occupational programs. The two largest areas are career orientation (7) and cooperative programs (7). This has clearly not been an area of great concern to direct-grant institutions.

The single largest group of respondents (69) regarded the basic curriculum programs as the "most successful" ones. However, 23 direct-grant institutions also commented they regarded the basic curriculum program as the least successful program funded by Title III.

Faculty Development – In 1966-67, almost all faculty development funds went for National Teaching Fellows (NTF); 42 direct-grant institutions reported having hired NTF's at a cost of either less than $20,000 (24 institutions) or between $20,000 and $49,000 (18 institutions). The number of direct-grant institutions hiring NTFs rose dramatically in 1967-68 when 116 institutions reported hiring them. This number later declined, so that in 1970-71 only 58 institutions still had NTF programs.

In-service training (24 institutions) and advanced graduate training programs for faculty (35 institutions) were added in 1967-68; eventually the latter became the second most commonplace program.

In almost all direct-grant institutions the NTFs worked in a variety of fields, rather than being clustered around one department. The two most frequent reasons cited for their usefulness were "they help improve the existing curriculum and the quality of teaching" (48 mentions) and "they free regular staff members for advanced graduate study" (61 mentions). Another argument in their favor frequently mentioned was that they brought in fresh approaches and ideas to teaching (24 mentions).

Only slightly over 20 direct-grant institutions used faculty development funds to hire Professors Emeriti during the entire funding period.

Institutions that made in-service training opportunities possible for their faculty emphasized primarily their use of workshops (35), institutes (20), and consultants (28). Most of the workshops and institutes were attended by 20 or more faculty and were primarily located on campus, which accounts for the high participation rate.

Most respondents reported that social scientists constituted the largest group of faculty members receiving advanced graduate training. Institutions involved in this program usually made advanced graduate study possible for up to four faculty members. One of the possible consequences of advanced training programs involves the loss of good faculty. In the direct-grant institutions, 33 reported losing no faculty, 27 lost one or two, 12 lost three to five faculty, and one lost between six and 10 faculty. In participating institutions, 47 reported losing none, 14 lost one or two, 4 lost three to five, and none more than five. The numbers are too small for useful generalization in comparing these two sets of figures; however, for some unknown reason, the direct-grant institutions did lose a few more faculty than did participating institutions.

The NTF program was mentioned by 56 colleges as the most successful program (see Table 5). The advanced graduate training program was second in popularity with 45. The in-service training program had been less than a success for 12 institutions, due primarily to a lack of faculty interest, while only 14 considered it their most successful program in faculty development. In-service training programs were not very successful when these figures are considered.

Administrative Improvement — Direct-grant institutions stated they had used administrative improvement funds for in-service training (43), had hired outside consultants (70), and had established new offices (68) during the 1965-66 to 1970-71 funding period. In all cases the amounts involved were usually less than $20,000. Over time, the use of consultants and establishment of new offices became somewhat more frequent, while fewer

institutions used administrative improvement monies for in-service training. Slightly more institutions (22) used in-service training funds for workshops and institutes rather than for management seminars (14) or attendance at regional or national workshops (13). Whatever the nature of programs funded with Title III in-service training funds, they were normally held on the campus of the respondent institution or nearby.

Twenty-three direct-grant institutions provided advanced graduate training for some administrators. The number of administrators per institution to whom advanced graduate training was made available ranged from one to four, and most of the opportunities for graduate study were available nearby on the campus of a larger institution. Only three institutions reported any administrators studying data processing or systems analysis, three in accounting, six in general business administration, while 26 were engaged in other study. Although the exact numbers in "other" are not known, some were engaged in curriculum study and others were studying academic disciplines and law.

Most of the colleges that hired consultants for administrative improvement purposes had them work either in the area of administrative reorganization (27) or in the area of curriculum development and review (31). Only nine were working to improve student personnel services, and 12 on data processing systems. The "other" category was used by 45 institutions. No pattern emerged from their write-in answers. Fifty-three of these consultants were independent; only a small number of direct-grant institutions contracted for consulting services with either educational (21) or management consulting firms (9).

Among the new offices established, most were either development offices (26) or institutional research offices (20) that were established in 1967-68 or later.

Thirty-one respondents who assessed the success of their administrative improvement programs said that consultants had been the single most important factor in helping them with their administration by improving expertise and efficiency. A smaller number of schools mentioned in-service training (20) and the establishment of new offices (16) as most successful. As in the case of consortium coordinators and participating institutions, 10 institutions were critical of the performance of consultants. The consultants were mentioned in the case data as being occasionally unwilling to learn about the institution's problems, and in one case the consultant did not know his presumed area of expertise.

Student Services—During the 1965-66 to 1970-71 period, 93 uses of student services funds provided by Title III for counseling and guidance were reported. In most cases, individual institutions received less than $20,000. Only 31 mentions were made of using student services funds for remedial and tutorial services, a surprisingly small number. No institution

reported using the money for developing student health services.

Twenty-seven institutions using Title III funds for counseling and guidance services allocated these monies for the improvement of existing counseling programs, while 11 established new counseling offices. Fourteen used money for vocational teaching and career guidance programs. Most of the programs were funded only for one year.

Ten institutions used their tutorial and remedial funds to establish remedial basic skills courses for freshmen, ten developed remedial English courses, and ten others developed freshman tutoring. Most programs were funded only for a single year.

Thirty seven of the approximately 65 institutions (Table 5) receiving funds for the improvement of student services reported that counseling and guidance programs were the most successful student service programs funded by Title III, while 13 voted for tutorial and remedial programs. Twenty institutions indicated that student reaction to these programs was very good. A small number of colleges said their counseling and guidance services had not been too successful, primarily because there was little student interest in the program.

*Direct-Grant Institutions' Assessment of the Usefulness of Title III Funds** — On the whole, direct-grant institutions tended to regard the basic curriculum funds as having been most helpful in the area of curriculum development (85 institutions), while the NTF program was seen as the most helpful faculty development program, being nominated by 115 institutions.

Consultants proved to be most helpful in the area of administrative improvement (44 institutions), while 37 institutions felt that the establishment of new offices was most helpful. Only 25 nominated in-service training programs as most useful, and 13 mentioned advanced graduate training as the most effective administrative program. Funds earmarked for counseling and guidance were seen as the most helpful aspect of student services improvement by 44 institutions, while 24 picked remedial and tutorial.

The Aggregate Impact of Title III Funds on Direct-Grant Institutions: A Discussion — The areas of curriculum development and faculty development are seen as major areas of concern. Moreover, judging by the questionnaire data, administrative improvement has not been neglected either, and a fairly large number of direct-grant institutions regard counseling as a critical area as well. While direct-grant institutions seem concerned about the relative underdevelopment of their counseling services, only about half of these institutions have submitted proposals for the improvement of those services. Once these colleges improve their curricula and the quality of their teaching, the development of adequate student services would clearly be the next priority.

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*"Most helpful" programs provide a different set of factors from the "most successful" judgements given in Table 5.

Direct-grant institutions are clearly part of a comprehensive funding strategy that assumes different results for different types of grants. The overall conclusion of our review is that the differences between direct-grant and consortium-related funding is minimal in the area of programs, monies spent, and results obtained. However, our case study data indicates that direct-grant institutions tend to be more self-directed and entrepreneurial in perspective. This suggests that institutions may be expected to move from consortium-related programs to direct-grant opportunities, assuming that the successful award of a direct grant indicates an institution is approaching the "take-off" stage.

Consequences of Title III Funds on Participating Institutions

Participating institutions are member institutions of Title III consortia. Many of them have participated in such consortia for long periods of time (in many cases even before Title III began) and have received substantial sums of money. The length of membership in a consortium is usually not specified *a priori*, except for members of two-year college consortia organized through the Program With Developing Institutions (PWDI) of the American Association of Junior Colleges. The now defunct PWDI made it clear to the members of its consortia that the consortia were formed on an *ad hoc* basis and that an institution's membership in a consortium was not to exceed two or three years because of the sequential approach to solving an institution's problems (see Table 6).

Participating institutions not only differ in the time period for which they belonged to a consortium, but even more in their degree of involvement with the consortium. An institution located farther away from the area in which most consortium members are clustered tends to be only marginally involved; the same is true for institutions that add differing subjects to their existing curriculum. Among the more interesting additions to the basic curriculum in participating institutions were freshmen engineering courses taught over a telewriter from the campus of a nearby large state university, professional business courses offering work experience in business and industry for part of each semester, and a preprofessional program in social work offering field work in the local community. Comments here are quite similar to those of the consortium coordinators, with 26 institutions indicating that new academic subjects were added through Title III curriculum funds, while 30 indicated that research on curricula was made possible in this way. Seventeen developed cultural enrichment programs. Ninety-three of these programs were for one year only.

In the remedial curricular area for participating institutions, the split was approximately even between basic skills programs (18 institutions) and developmental reading programs (14 institutions). The occupational and career programs were primarily in career orientation efforts (9 institu-

tions). And again, most of the programs were of one year's duration.

Of the most successful programs for curricular development, 63 indicated that the basic curriculum programs were most successful, 23 indicated remedial curriculum programs, and 9 indicated the occupational and career curricula (Table 6). The reasons given are basically the same reasons given by the consortium coordinators, with the exception that in this area a few more of the remedial curriculum programs seemed to be positive in the sense of improving students' self-image and enabling them to work more effectively.

Table 6. Grants Awarded and Judgment of Program Success, Participating Institutions

	Total Number of Grants Awarded	Most Successful Programs	Least Successful Programs
Curriculum			
Basic Curriculum	187	63	19
Remedial Curriculum	26	23	8
Occupational Career Curriculum	21	9	8
Other	94	24	3
	328	119	38
Faculty Development			
National Teaching Fellows	229	48	3
Professors Emeriti	11	4	4
In-service Training	130	32	14
Advanced Graduate Training	126	33	3
Other	75	9	16
	571	126	40
Administrative Improvement			
In-service Training	56	24	13
Advanced Graduate Training	15	4	3
Use of Consultants	60	32	13
Offices with New Functions	86	21	3
Other	43	10	14
	260	91	46
Student Services			
Counseling and Guidance	77	33	6
Tutorial and Remedial	10	10	3
Health Services	1	2	0
Other	68	19	4
	156	64	13
Totals	1315	400	137

Of the least-successful-programs in curriculum, 19 indicated that basic curriculum programs were least successful, eight indicated remedial programs, and eight indicated occupational career programs. The most frequent comments made were that the students lacked motivation and that the institutions experienced great difficulty in finding ways to motivate students to make these programs more effective. However, some work of extreme interest was being done. One college, for example, used its funds to establish a finger-spelling course for students with hearing handicaps. Some institutions used these funds to set up or improve adult basic education courses for minority populations, with the intent of offering GED programs. Eighteen of these programs lasted one year, while 14 lasted two years. In addition to the 63 institutions indicating that basic curriculum programs were the most successful, 19 reported that these programs were the least successful in the area (Table 6).

Faculty Development — Only 14 responding institutions received Title III funds for faculty development in 1966-67, 11 of which received less than $20,000. By 1970-71 the number of these had risen to 103. Of these, the National Teaching Fellow (NTF) program was the one indicated as being the most helpful (as distinguished from "most successful"). Thirty-four institutions indicated that it was the improvement of existing curriculum and quality of teaching that mattered most, while 44 felt that it was the freeing of regular staff members for advanced study that was the most helpful aspect of the program. In addition to these assessments as to the helpfulness of Title III monies, the most successful programs (Table 6) indicated that the NTFs were most successful at 48 institutions, with advanced graduate training being most successful at 33. The NTF program was seen as the least successful program in faculty development by only 3.

On the other hand, 14 indicated the in-service training programs were least successful, due particularly to lack of faculty motivation and involvement. It would appear that the NTF program was not only extremly successful numerically but also that relatively few of these programs were significant failures. A few institutions were able to begin innovative courses, such as adaptive physical education for physically handicapped. Indian history courses, and others due to the NTFs.

Again, the Professors Emeriti program was conspicuous in its absence. This program was spread out evenly across the humanities and natural and social sciences. Although six institutions reported Professors Emeriti specializing in one of these areas, eight institutions indicated the Professors Emeriti worked in more than one of these fields. Given the fact that four of the Professors Emeriti programs were listed as being least successful (Table 6), there is some indication of a serious problem in this area. The most frequent reason given was the Professors Emeriti simply had no impact on the

campus. Whether this was due to an age gap or lack of motivation is not revealed by the data.

Among in-service training programs for faculty, workshops organized by the consortium for its member institutions were the single most popular programs. Over 100 respondent institutions were involved in these activities. Of these, 45 tended to be located on campuses of consortium member colleges. Ninety-five institutions reported that these programs involved 20 or more faculty. Thus, the workshops and in-service training programs tended to be rather large in view of the number of faculty from each institution represented. However, 14 of the in-service training programs were listed as being least successful (Table 6), particularly because there was no faculty interest in such in-service work and apparently no administrative leadership capable of making the faculty interested.

Advanced graduate training opportunities were used by faculty in all fields, with 37 institutions reporting faculty working in the humanities, 22 in the natural and pure sciences, and 37 in the social sciences. The vast majority of institutions (120) indicated that fewer than five faculty were involved in the advanced graduate training program, compared to only three voted least-successful in the area (Table 6).

Fourteen institutions found the in-service programs to which they sent their faculty unsatisfactory, usually because the faculty did not seem to gain new skills, enthusiasm, or insight as to the nature of their work. From the data it cannot be determined whether the size of the work group was a factor or whether the quality of the workshop's presentations was at fault.

Administrative Improvement – Again, it was only in 1967-68 that sizeable numbers of participating institutions began receiving administrative improvement funds (30 during that year). By 1970-71 the number had increased to 63. In-service training programs were widely used in the administrative improvement area. In 23 cases this meant attendance at regional or national conferences and in 33 cases it meant workshops and institutions organized locally or within the confines of the consortium. These programs were indicated as being least successful by 24 institutions, but were indicated as being least successful by 13 institutions.

In addition to in-service training, consultants were used primarily to help with administrative reorganization (35 institutions) and to assist in curriculum development or review (23 institutions). The consultants were overwhelmingly individuals rather than persons working for a management consulting firm.

The offices established were primarily development offices (45 institutions) and institutional research offices (26 institutions).

Twenty campuses encouraged their administrators to take advanced graduate training. In most cases these administrators were able to enroll at a large local institution. Most of the institutions (10) sent only one of their ad-

ministrators for this type of training; nine institutions sent between two and four. In almost every case, the administrator went to a college or university in the same area.

The use of consultants was considered the most successful program by 32 institutions (Table 6); the establishment of new offices with new functions was considered by 21 institutions as the most successful program; and the in-service training program was considered by 24 institutions as most successful. However, as noted earlier, some institutions were disappointed, particularly in the use of consultants. Some data indicate that the consultants were not on campus long enough to really get an idea of local problems. This was apparent in one of the case studies. Perhaps there is some need for a consultant, no matter how broadly knowledgeable about higher education, to spend enough time on a campus to become thoroughly familiar with the particular problems of that campus.

Student Services – Of the least successful programs, counseling and guidance was the largest area (Table 6), with six institutions reporting this to be the case. It is believed this is due almost entirely to lack of student interest, plus a general feeling that there may not have been enough qualified personnel to do justice to the program.

It was surprising to find that the number of participating institutions using Title III funds for the improvement of student services was relatively so small. It appeared that the remedial and tutorial areas were neglected and it seemed odd that Title III staff members did not do more either to encourage worthwhile proposals in this area or to make sure the funds got to worthy programs already in existence.

Overall Assessment – Looking at the assessment of the utility of Title III funds overall, and shifting for a moment from most successful to most helpful funds, 76 schools reported that funds used for basic curriculum improvement were the most helpful in curriculum development, while 92 reported that NTF money was most useful in the faculty development area. In-service training (58) and advanced graduate training (62) were listed next as most helpful. In the area of administrative improvement, 57 ranked outside consultants as most helpful, and 40 indicated that in-service training programs had been of most help. In 41 cases, the establishment of new administrative offices was listed as the most helpful contribution. In the student services area, counseling and guidance programs were far and away the most helpful aspect of the program, with 45 institutions reporting this to be so. Since the number of participating institutions among our respondents was rather large, the main trends were somewhat clearer than in the case of consortia coordinators. Curriculum development and faculty development are clearly the areas of greatest concern to those responding for most participating institutions.

The large number of new offices established with Title III funds was quite

significant, especially considering that, unlike the addition of a new course or the hiring of a consultant, the future maintenance of such an office requires a firm commitment on the part of the college. It is unclear from the study data how many institutions have actually made that commitment nor is it clear how many of the fairly large number of offices established under Title III are still in operation today.

Impact of Title III on Consortia

Consortia have played an important role in planning programs beyond the scope of individual institutions. They have also been instrumental in channelling Title III funds to institutions not eligible for direct assistance either because they were too undeveloped (a rare case) or because they were already too developed (a not-so-rare case).

Curriculum Development Funds—The number of our questionnaire respondents representing consortia receiving Title III funds for curriculum development was extremely small until 1967-68. In that year, a total of 12 consortia obtained funds for that purpose: five consortia received less than $20,000; two received between $20,000 and $49,999; and five received $50,000 or more. Most of the consortia stated that less than half of the total funds for curriculum development purposes (26 of 58 programs mentioned) in which Title III funds were used were Title III monies. As with other program areas, Title III was seldom the sole support for these programs.

In 1968-69, the number of consortia receiving Title III funds for curriculum development rose to 22: six had below $20,000; seven had $20,000-$49,999; and eight consortia received $50,000 or more. Again, most of the consortia stated that less than half of the funds for curriculum development programs in which Title III funds were used were actually Title III monies.

In 1969-70, 12 out of 26 consortia reporting grants for curriculum development purposes received $50,000 or more, and again the majority stated that Title III did not constitute the major funding source for those programs.

The following year again showed an increase in the number of consortia whose curriculum development projects were funded. The number rose to 29, out of which 13 received $50,000 or more. Most of these programs were in the area of basic curriculum development. Again, most of these consortia had large amounts of non-Title III funds for these projects.

The area of basic curriculum and its development was considered one of the most urgent tasks by many consortia receiving Title III funding for curriculum development. Adding new academic subjects (15 mentions) and research on curricular revision (12 mentions) were cited as the programs most often funded. Twenty-seven programs lasted for one year or less, 15 for two years, nine for three years. Almost no consortia developed a behavioral objectives approach to basic curriculum and none worked in computer-assisted instruction.

Among consortia emphasizing remedial programs, the development of basic skills programs was most frequent (7 mentions). Four consortia also began developmental reading programs. Seven of the consortia that emphasized remedial programs received Title III funds for this purpose for one year, eight for two years. Consortia reported no prevocational orientation programs, only one tutorial program, and no courses in remedial communications skills. These areas were slighted for reasons that were not clear.

Just about all consortia having received funds for curriculum development reported that the programs had been successful. The area of basic curriculum was mentioned most often (24) as the most successful area (partly because most consortia concentrated on that area), while remedial curriculum programs were judged as successful only five times (see Table 7).

There are many problems for consortium coordinators, because certain programs may have been very successful on some campuses in the consortium but not on others. The case studies do point to several institutions where curricular development successfully took place through a consortium. Because many of the developing institutions were weak in traditional academic areas, it seems certain this is what most of the programs provided. Institutions unable to round out their basic curriculum, especially in the liberal arts, were able to do so through a consortium. (It should be noted that in most cases Title III monies were not the dominant funding for these programs.)

Respondents were also asked to indicate which of these programs were least successful (see Table 7). Seven nominated the basic curriculum area as being least successful, while the occupational/career curriculum was mentioned as being least successful by five respondents. Since there were only seven programs in operation in this category, it would appear that the consortium coordinators were having difficulty in occupational/career programs. Given the kinds of students that developing institutions attract, this seems to be an area where considerable work should be done to improve program quality.

Faculty Development Funds—Twenty-seven consortia reported having helped member institutions obtain NTFs; 23 schools receiving NTFs tended to ask for them for a variety of disciplines rather than concentrating on one department. The reason for employing NTFs most often mentioned (15 consortia) was "to free regular staff members for advanced study." The next most important reason given (11 responses) was "to help improve the existing curriculum and/or the quality of teaching."

One can, of course, raise questions regarding the true mission of Title III. For example, if a young, bright faculty member goes to a distinguished institution, finishes a doctorate through an NTF, and leaves the host campus to teach at a prestigious university, can it truly be said that the program failed?

Table 7. Grants Awarded and Judgment of Program Success, Coordinators of Consortia

	Total Number of Grants Awarded	Most Successful Programs	Least Successful Programs
Curriculum			
Basic Curriculum	75	24	7
Remedial Curriculum	5	5	0
Occupational/Career Curriculum	12	4	5
Other	25	5	2
	117	38	14
Faculty Development			
National Teaching Fellows	66	10	0
Professors Emeriti	1	0	1
In-service Training	37	10	8
Advanced Graduate Training	45	12	1
Other	21	6	2
	170	38	12
Administrative Improvement			
In-service Training	17	4	3
Advanced Graduate Training	8	4	0
Use of Consultants	17	4	2
Offices with New Functions	21	5	0
Other	16	3	0
	79	20	5
Student Services			
Counseling and Guidance	23	3	1
Tutorial and Remedial	2	4	0
Health Services	0	1	0
Other	22	4	0
	47	12	1
Totals	413	108	32

Similarly, must all black medical students return to the ghetto to set up medical practice? These are difficult questions to resolve. Most consortia in this study did not lose faculty because of the NTF program.

The Professors Emeriti program seems to have been virtually ignored by consortia: only four consortia reported having helped member institutions find Professors Emeriti; only two consortia used the program and one of the two nominated their program as least successful in the faculty development area.

In-service training for regular faculty members was a very important part of the faculty development program in over 20 consortia. Most of this

in-service training took place in the form of workshops organized by consortia for faculty from member institutions. Most of these workshops were organized on the campus of a member institution of the consortium, and the majority of these workshops attracted between 10 and 14 participants. Conferences with consultants on matters of faculty development were arranged by six consortia. Other kinds of training included visits to other campuses and attendance at regional and national meetings. These programs began to increase in number by 1970. Most consortia (15) reported that 20 or more faculty members were involved in these in-service programs.

One finding that emerges from the case studies is the great effectiveness of some programs that allowed faculty to visit other institutions. Not only did they leave familiar ground for a time, they also made new contacts, saw some programs in actual operation, and often developed a better sense of what was possible on their own campus. Some of these virtues were also present in the workshop format since faculty from several institutions were present. It is recommended that more sustained use of the pattern of faculty visits to other campuses be encouraged.

About 25 helped their member insitutions arrange for advanced graduate training for their faculty; most of the faculty selected, as reported by 14 consortia, were social scientists. In 16 cases, fewer than five faculty members per consortium were involved. Leaves of absence for advanced graduate training were granted primarily to faculty planning to earn a doctorate. Eleven consortia reported the PhD as the primary degree earned, while nine indicated a combination of MA and PhD work. Some faculty left their institution after they had obtained their higher degree through Title III: eight consortia reported that their member institutions lost in this way; in seven consortia, the number of faculty who left was one to two; in one consortium three to five.

When the consortia were asked (Table 7) which one of the faculty development programs they regarded as the most successful, the programs mentioned were NTFs (10 mentions), in-service training for faculty (10 mentions), and advanced graduate training for faculty (12 mentions). The reasons given for the success of these programs dealt primarily with the general improvement of teaching and the improvement of faculty quality (17 mentions). A small number of consortia (eight) reported that the in-service training for faculty had not been quite as successful as anticipated, due primarily to a lack of faculty interest and involvement.

Administrative Improvement – In-service training for administrators was established by 15 consortia; six programs reported sending administrators of member institutions to attend regional or national conferences; five involved locally organized workshops and institutes.

Six consortia helped member institutions find appropriate advanced graduate training opportunities for administrators, usually at institutions in

the same area. Only one or two administrators in a consortium generally availed themselves of this opportunity. It is noteworthy that none of them studied matters related to administration, such as business administration, data processing, systems analysis, etc. From the case studies, there were several instances of an administrator working on a PhD program in a subject field.

About eight consortia in our study hired consultants to help member institutions carry out specific improvements. The majority of consultants (5) helped on administrative reorganization, and in five cases the consultants were free agents rather than employees of management or educational consulting firms.

Ten consortia helped member institutions set up new offices: seven reported development offices and six reported institutional research offices. These offices were set up mainly in 1968 and 1969. Our data from the questionnaire unfortunately does not reveal how long these offices continued after their establishment. Interview data revealed that, in some cases, institutions were unable to maintain these new offices when the consultants left. However, this was a general problem not limited to offices established through consortia.

When the consortium coordinators were asked to rate the administrative improvement programs according to their relative success, no single approach to administrative improvement was rated above any other (see Table 7). Although direct-grant and participating institutions reported much dissatisfaction with this area, only five consortia reported that administrative improvement programs had been less successful than expected. This clearly was not an area in which coordinators of consortia were actively involved.

Improvement of Student Services—In the area of counseling and guidance, the emphasis of consortia providing assistance to member institutions was primarily on helping these schools establish new counseling offices (five consortia) or helping them improve their existing counseling programs (three consortia).

About half a dozen consortia assisted member institutions to set up tutorial and remedial programs primarily for freshmen who needed help in perfecting basic skills in general or remedial English skills in particular. The low figure was somewhat surprising.

Although Title III would have provided funds for the improvement of health services, not one consortium among the respondents applied for funds in this area. Again, it is not clear why.

The counseling and guidance programs and tutorial and remedial programs were considered successful by nearly every consortium respondent (Table 7).

Consortia's Overall Assessment of the Usefulness of Title III Funds – Twenty-three consortia reported that funds used for the improvement of the basic curriculum had been particularly helpful in the area of curriculum development. There were two main advantages Title III funding made possible: the first was the addition of new academic subjects; the second was the possibility for genuine research on curricular revision. Fifteen consortia indicated the importance of academic subjects they had added to their curricula, while 12 reported the importance of research on curricular revision. Interestingly enough, no consortium indicated that additional vocational subjects were of importance, and no consortium had developed behavioral objective approaches or computer-assisted learning in relation to their curriculum development programs. Ten of the programs had been in operation for two years, and seven for three years. These programs seem to have some advantage over the 13 programs that had only had one year of funding.

Under remedial curricula the development of basic skills programs was the most frequently reported (seven consortia), while four reported developmental reading programs had been established. There was no concern for tutorial programs or prevocational orientation programs. Some comments from consortia that had developed basic skills programs indicated this was something they very much wanted to do earlier but could not fund by themselves. There is no data on the quality of these programs in terms of the number of students who were "salvaged" by them and, as a consequence, made into better students.

The occupational and vocational area of curriculum development money for consortia was conspicuous by its small number of efforts. Two programs in career orientation, two in cooperative education, and two in trade fields comprised the largest number of programs, and most of these lasted one year. Given the small number of programs in this area, not much weight can be given to the respondents' comments.

Seven consortia indicated that the basic curriculum was the program that was the least successful area and five indicated that the occupational career curriculum programs were the most unsuccessful (Table 7). Given the small numbers of these two areas, they seem to be distinctly unsuccessful, at least in a numerical sense. (It should be noted that "least successful" is not equivalent to "not helpful" listed in the summary tabulation at the beginning of this section. "Least successful" is more of an index of genuine program failure, whereas "not helpful" simply means the program changed little when Title III monies were provided.)

In the area of faculty development, the NTF program was the most widespread, with 26 consortia reporting that the program was the most helpful in that area. The reasons for this were that the program freed regular staff members for advanced study (11 consortia) and helped to improve the

existing curriculum and the quality of teaching (5 consortia). Ten consortia indicated that the NTF program was the most successful in the area of faculty development, and no consortia listed it as being among the least successful programs (Table 7). The Professors Emeriti program, as noted earlier, was conspicuously absent. It may be that Title III consortia wanted younger persons with newer ideas.

In-service training programs were listed as being most helpful by 13 consortia and as most successful by 10 (Table 7). Some of the in-service training programs were also listed as being least successful, generally because the faculty had no particular interest in in-service or advanced graduate training. Overall, the programs for faculty development were believed to be most helpful by the consortia respondents.

In the administrative area, there was generally less enthusiasm for the success of in-service training and advanced graduate training programs (Table 7). Outside consultants were considered useful, particularly in terms of helping to establish new offices on campus. The reasons given for these successes were that the administration was able to develop greater specialized expertise, and an increase could be noticed in administrative efficiency as a consequence of the consultants and the new offices. However, only five consortia responded in this way.

In the student services area, consortia seemed to find the establishment of new counseling offices to be quite useful, with five consortia indicating that tutorial and remedial programs established under Title III were most helpful. The most important reason for the success of these programs, as given by the consortia, was that they were well received by the students and seemed to have student support. There were almost no cases of a consortium indicating student services programs were either least effective or not helpful. However, there was a lack of specificity regarding the institutions' reason for saying these programs were successful. It may be that simply the establishment of an office or a person to deal with this very pressing problem was a considerable morale-builder to the institution, even if no positive gains on the part of student performance were registered.

Generally consortium coordinators did not seem to develop programs significantly different from institutional-based programs, nor did their evaluations of these programs differ much from those of their campus-based colleges. Even given the difficulties in self-rating instruments, such as the one used here, there were few differences between consortia strategies and those of participating and direct-grant institutions.

Consortia as Reflected in the Case Studies

Our summary of consortia data reported fairly optimistic feelings on the part of questionnaire respondents (usually administrators) regarding the effectiveness of consortia activities. However, on the campuses there were

some differences. The case study group of 41 campuses provided us with data on 14 consortia. Many of the consortia were reported as not functioning very well for a variety of reasons. Small, proud institutions often resent what they perceive as condescending attitudes on the part of large institutions in the consortia (reported by two of the campuses) . Sometimes distances between schools or differences in institutional size and mission were too great to allow optimal cooperation (this was reported by two institutions other than the two above) . In two other cases, funding of the consortium was regarded as insufficient to allow for development of effective programs that would benefit individual campuses. We found that most faculty respondents on campus were almost totally ignorant of Title III involvement with the consortia, and often they were not aware of the consortium itself, which seemed to act as liaison between the chief administrators of institutions. Few consortia had established liaisons at the faculty level and almost none at the student level. It may be that consortia, as well as individual institutions, have developmental patterns of growth, but the pattern of increasing participation by various campus groups in consortium activity could not be ascertained nor could factors that made the difference in their performance be determined. In five consortia, the pattern seemed to be an early emphasis on building the consortia, followed by a period of decreasing faith in its possibilities, and then a period of emphasis on building the individual institutions, with the consortia serving only as a fiscal agent for disbursement of funds. In five cases, there were charges that consortia coordinators played favorites among the cooperating institutions. Such charges were made in almost all institutions that belonged to consortia, but not with any frequency aside from the five cases mentioned.

On the positive side, four consortia seemed to be operating fairly well from the campus perspective. They had provided successful services such as course exchanges, guest lecture programs, joint hiring of faculty, and joint studies of admissions and other administrative problems. One consortium has been very successful in organizing curriculum workshops, a visiting professors program, and development offices on each campus. On these campuses the consortium is well known by faculty and is considered a friendly agency. Consortium leadership is viewed as supplementary to, rather than subversive of, campus leadership.

One consortium is functioning extremely well. A group of eight schools in New England banded together to fend off financial instability and has so far succeeded. All routine administrative tasks are carried out through the consortium. Library transports move books between campuses daily, creating a mobile library for the consortia of institutions. Joint course numbering allows frequent student exchange of courses. In addition, a common 4-1-4 calendar, a marine sciences program, and a number of cultural exchange programs produce a genuine multiplier effect, providing resources that no

single campus could manage. These schools are now committed to interdependence. This manifest function has produced some latent functions as well; for example, the religiously controlled institutions in the consortium for the first time have adopted a relatively contemporary approach to many educational issues due to their consortium associations. Yet this has increased institutional identity, as these new ways of doing things were translated into the institution's milieu. Indeed, the identity of these institutions may actually be stronger because of the consortium.

There seem to be serious policy issues regarding the amount of Title III monies allocated to consortia compared to the amount allocated by direct grant. Both funding methods have their successes and failures. There have been some particularly spectacular failures in consortia "showcase" programs designed to increase the visibility of the consortia rather than to improve the educational quality of the member institutions. Consortia requests should be oriented toward sharing the strengths of existing institutions or toward centralizing routine administrative tasks to cut costs. Accountability of funds spent by a consortium must be clear.

Many of the consortia were typified by great diversity of member characteristics and by geography that severely limited meaningful "grass-roots" collaboration. Some homogenizing of consortium members may make success more likely.

Many consortia in the survey received funds from sources other than Title III. This creates difficulties in analyzing the effectiveness of Title III monies through consortia and also causes auditing problems. As with institutional support, more precise specification, more sophisticated planning, and increased accountability are necessary. It is recommended that both consortia and direct-grant funding strategies be maintained. As with individual institutions, there were several cases in which a consortium produced excellent results with relatively few dollars and other cases in which large sums produced virtually no result.

The Consequences of Title III Funds for Developing Institutions

At the beginning of the funding period a large number of institutions in the Developing Institutions program were in danger of extinction. At the end of the average three-year period in which institutions received funding, many institutions in the Title III group had made considerable strides toward operational soundness and had gained an increased sense of purpose and self-direction. This cannot be solely attributed to Title III, since over half the programs were supported heavily from other sources. In several institutions two grants for a single purpose would not have been awarded had the two funding agencies been aware of the other award.

There were similar priorities and practices among coordinators of consortia, participating institutions, and direct-grant institutions and no characteristically different way in which funds or programs were handled could be discerned. It seemed certain that the three types of funding were not producing significantly different results. However, some common concerns emerged that were characteristic of all Title III programs.

Poor General Curricula

Developing institutions were aware of the relative narrowness of their course offerings. Title III offered them a chance to improve this situation at relatively low cost through faculty workshops and through the National Teaching Fellowship program. The NTFs were usually called upon not only to teach traditional courses but to introduce new teaching methods and to develop new curricula. Almost all the responding institutions hired NTFs from a variety of disciplines to strengthen the curriculum as a whole rather than using them only to improve one marginal or weak department. Institutions will not be happy with the demise of the NTF program. There is no doubt that this program was seen by many as the single most important assistance provided by Title III. Its success also suggests that the best way to improve institutions is to bring in outside expertise rather than to use an institution's own faculty or staff. However, the perpetuation of improvements wrought by Title III staff will rest with those faculty members who stay at the institution for an extended period of time, since the NTFs leave after making what clearly were important contributions. Perhaps the NTF program represented an early stage in institutional maturation that will be less necessary in the future than it was in 1965-66.

That the Professors Emeriti program never caught on is undoubtedly not just a reflection of the relatively short supply of retired professors willing to return to teaching. Rather, the developing institutions have indicated

through often enthusiastic endorsement of the NTF program that they want young academics with fresh ideas and people for whom teaching has not yet become routine. It may be that institutions put too much weight on the NTFs for revising curriculum and methods of teaching that should have been an institution-wide activity. Frequent reference was made to the importance and benefits of visiting another campus for both faculty and administrators and hopefully Title III can make this opportunity more available in the future. There is little doubt also that the NTF program helped many institutions provide release time for regular faculty to pursue advanced degrees. Whether obtaining an advanced degree made them better as teachers cannot be said.

Insufficient Remedial Programs

We were concerned with the small number of institutions that took remedial programs seriously through Title III. (It may be that they were receiving funds from other sources in this area and thus preferred to use their Title III resources where funding was unavailable from other sources.) Developing institutions as a group may not have larger members of entering freshmen with academic deficiencies, but it would seem that they are likely to find it harder to cope with the problem of providing these remedial programs. Some colleges receiving Title III assistance have realized that one or two remedial courses in basic skills such as English may not be enough to integrate students with deficiencies into the regular curriculum. Many institutions have begun setting up counseling programs to supplement the special curricular efforts and to focus personal and academic counseling in a single office. Case studies report a fair number of learning resource centers, student services centers, and student counseling centers. There is an urgent national need in this area. Many institutions not in the Title III program could avail themselves of Title III funds and in this way Title III could make a great contribution if significant progress were made toward the development of effective models for remedial programs.

Lack of Adequate Administrative Facilities

A good recordkeeping system as well as a good record-retrieval system are now a necessity for all institutions of higher education. An institution that has an adequate level of self-knowledge can be managed more easily and more rationally than a college in which vital information about the institution is known to only a very small number of people. As colleges have come to realize the importance of self-knowledge, they have become more inclined to establish mechanisms to deal with the problem. This involves the establishment of offices of institutional research and better coordination between existing offices in terms of sharing information. Of the 175 new offices begun under Title III auspices, most were either institutional research or development offices. Of the rather large number started, our interview and case

study data does not report instances of these offices failing after the initial start.

More often than not, a Title III grant for the establishment of such offices was a one-time seed grant. The college that set up the office then would have to find means to support the office by itself after the seed grant had been used up. Unlike the institutional research office, the development office does, or at least should, pay for itself in a short time. Title III has helped a fairly large number of colleges set up development offices which, if properly run, might make the difference between an institution's survival and its demise.

Program Autonomy

One of the major difficulties was that the funding agent perceived Title III programs as being autonomous, while the individual institution felt perfectly free to put together combinations of funding to create a particular program. Thus, the Title III office was seldom aware of the totality of program funding. It was also clear that on most campuses the role of the Title III coordinator was not clearly delineated and in most cases very few hours per week were given to this position. If the Title III office had been more in evidence, the new programs within the institution might have attained more identity and coherence.

Leadership

Leadership in the institution, particularly the role of the president, plays an enormous part in the successful utilization of Title III. With good leadership, relatively small amounts of money produce great gains; without it, large amounts of money may produce almost nothing at all. In most of the developing institutions, the leadership begins with the administration, particularly the president, and then works outward to other administrators, faculty, and students. Given the importance of this dimension, there might be some ways in which Title III could better assess leadership potential before grants were awarded.

Cost Effectiveness

One of the questions that the Title III staff must ask is, What size grant produces the greatest yield with the minimum expenditure of precious federal funds? The general pattern of Title III strategy was to provide a large number of grants in the less-than-$20,000 category (particularly in curriculum, administrative improvement, and student services) and a considerably smaller number of bigger grants consisting of over $50,000. The only exception to this is in faculty development, in which more grants in the $20,000-$49,999 category were made than in any other. Although there was a general interrelationship of size of grant, size of program, and quality of

institutional improvement, the correspondences are far from absolute. With superb leadership, very small amounts of money can produce excellent results.

Probably more important to the institutional perspective than size of grant is continuity of funding. Many interviews reported real concern with institutions beginning new and somewhat risky programs with no assurance of funding beyond the first year. There are risks in this area, particularly in terms of federal calendars. Certainly the staff does not want to engage in completely multi-year funding, but some percentage, perhaps as large as 50 percent of the money in typical Title III grants, should be in the multi-year category.

Part of the justification for a cost-effectiveness approach is the use of consortia in Title III. Consortia are clearly designed to be agencies that can produce a multiplier effect: a given number of dollars will produce greater improvement in a larger number of institutions when applied through a consortium. The case studies show inconclusive evidence to support this claim. On the other hand, consortia do provide a greater diversity of programs than institutions could provide for themselves. The problem with using cost-effectiveness in this particular program is that outcomes of Title III grants are too diverse. They include the establishment of marine biology programs, 4-1-4 calendars, a systems approach to administration, the development of new text-books and materials, adding academic counselors, remedial education specialists and remedial programs, introduction of arts and humanities courses, the existence of guided studies programs, writing clinics, new physical science programs, and the establishment of new administrative offices. These elements usually are significant additions to the campus repertoire, but they make cost-effective decisions or judgments difficult because of the diversity of program outcomes. An additional problem in relation to cost-effectiveness is the inability to recommend the ideal size for grants to accomplish specific tasks. This seems to be an area in which much more research needs to be done. Generally, it is believed that larger amounts of Title III money should be awarded in the form of multi-year grants. It is also hoped that remedial and student services areas would be enlarged somewhat, because ultimately any program which keeps a student in school when he is thinking of dropping out may well be the most cost-effective program of all.

The new Title III Advanced Program comes at precisely the right time, in the author's view, as a fairly large number of institutions now seem ready for the developmental stage labelled "take-off," even though recent discussion of the decrease in numbers of those going on to college suggest that this process may be much more difficult to facilitate through the 70s than was believed a few years ago. And in the original Title III format, if there is a larger role for the campus Title III coordinator, better awareness of the other

funding sources used in conjunction with Title III, more supervision and assistance from the Title III staff, more explicit statements of program goals from the institutions themselves, and more focus on institutional leadership, Title III can continue to serve the needs of a greater spectrum of developing institutions than in the past.

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